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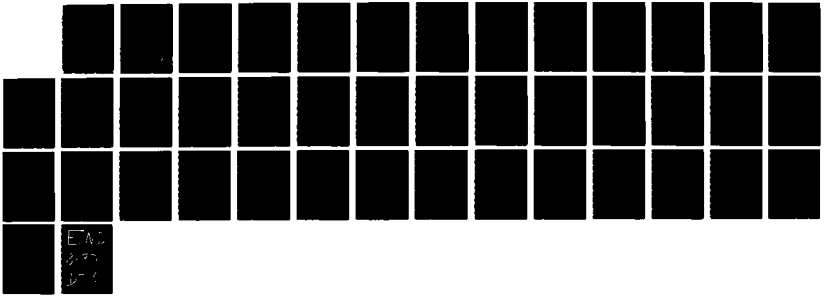

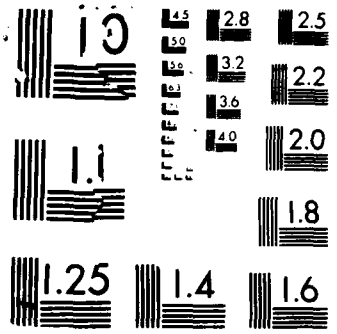
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LEADERSHIP OF VOLUNTEERS, BY VOLUNTEERS

A Report

Presented to

the Faculty of the School of Education

San Diego State University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Course

Education 795B Seminar

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

Many organizations, including hospitals and charities, depend extensively upon volunteers to get things accomplished. Civic organizations and clubs are staffed and run entirely by volunteers. The absence of incentives such as pay implies that something intrinsic motivates an individual to assume a time-consuming volunteer leadership position, often in addition to a full-time job. Altruism is often a motivation for hospital and charity volunteers, while participation in civic organizations can be an asset to an individual's career. But what motivates club leaders?

Square dancing is a purely voluntary activity, with club leadership provided by the dancers themselves. Some people dance for decades and never hold a club position. Others start assuming leadership roles as soon as they graduate from the class and rise through the ranks to become club presidents. These volunteer leaders are the lifeblood of square dancing, and many more of them are needed if the clubs are to thrive. In fact, several local clubs have folded because no one was willing to be the president. The leadership style used by the volunteer leaders has a profound effect on the functioning of the

club; it can influence the willingness of others to volunteer for leadership positions or even to continue dancing with the club. Since there are many clubs from which to choose, anyone who feels mistreated or abused will simply quit the club and dance somewhere else. In order to be able to recruit more volunteer leaders, it would be advantageous to find out what kind of person volunteers, what motivates him or her, and what leadership style is used most frequently.

The Problem

This study surveyed presidents of square dance clubs to determine demographic similarities, motivations for assuming leadership positions, and predominant leadership styles.

The Subproblems

1. Compare the club presidents demographically.
2. Determine the reasons the club presidents volunteered for leadership positions, in order of importance.
3. Determine the most preferred leadership style.

Limitations and Assumptions of the Study

The study was limited to presidents of square dance clubs in the San Diego area. "Square dancing" has been used throughout the study as a generic term encompassing square dancing, round dancing, and clogging. Leadership style was determined in accordance with the Situational

Leadership model developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard.

Definitions of Terms

Clogging - A folk dance involving tap dancing in unison to country/western music.

Round dancing - Couples dance a pre-arranged routine in a circle, cued by an instructor.

Square dancing - A folk dance done by groups of four couples standing on the four sides of an imaginary square.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

History of Square Dancing

While the square dance is uniquely American, it was derived from bits and pieces of foreign dances such as English country dances, French quadrilles, and Irish jigs (Casey, 1976).

In the early days, no prior dancing experience was needed. Square dancing was generally a single-visiting dance. The first couple would move out to the couple on the right and dance a simple figure with them. After completing the pattern, the first couple would leave the second couple at their home spot and dance the same pattern with the third couple. Having danced with the third couple, the first couple would then dance the pattern with the fourth couple. Couple one would then return home, and all of the dancers would swing, do an allemande left, a grand right and left and promenade. Couple two would duplicate the visiting procedure, followed by couple three and finally couple four. New dancers danced as couple four, giving them plenty of time to observe the other dancers and learn the pattern before it was their turn to dance (SIOASDS, 1980).

Square dancing had almost faded away by 1900, as the country became more urban and most people considered folk

dancing to be for "hicks" and other unsophisticated folk. The man who did the most to reintroduce square dancing to the public was the principal of the Cheyenne Mountain School in Colorado, Dr. Lloyd "Pappy" Shaw (Nevell, 1977). Shaw added European folk dancing to the school's curriculum and formed an exhibition dance group of students, the Cheyenne Mountain Dancers, who toured the country. Shaw then began researching American folk dances, especially the "cowboy dances" or square dances. By the mid-1930s, the Cheyenne Mountain Dancers were touring the country giving square dance exhibitions. Square dancing soon spread like wildfire.

Technology ushered square dancing into a new era with the development of the public address system and the use of phonograph records. No longer did the caller have to stand on a kitchen chair and shout out his calls, and the calls no longer had to be simple, basic commands that could be heard over the surface noise of the floor. Callers were free to create new dance patterns and develop unique calling styles. Callers began to travel from town to town, spreading the new calls and patterns. Soon it became obvious that some coordination and organization was needed.

Clubs were formed to recapture community spirit in a busy urban world. At first the clubs were loosely organized, with everyone taking turns at calling. As calling became more specialized, it turned into a paid

profession. Clubs adopted a formal democratic structure, with elected officers and rules and a budget. An unknown author even came up with a tongue-in-cheek version of the Ten Commandments for Square Dancers:

> 1. Thou shalt honor thy caller and harken to his voice for thy success depends greatly upon his words.
>
> 2. Thou shalt exchange greetings and be friendly to all in thy group, lest ye be labeled a snob and unworthy of the title "Square Dancer."
>
> 3. Thou shalt not ridicule those dancers possessing two left hands but shall endeavor to help them distinguish one from the other.
>
> 4. Thou shalt strive to dance in different squares, thereby giving to all the benefit of thy fine personality and great experience.
>
> 5. Thou shalt not anticipate or dance ahead of thy caller for he is of fiendish nature and possessed of evil powers to make you appear ill-prepared in the eyes of thy fellow dancers.
>
> 6. Thou shalt not moan and belittle the caller, thy partner, nor the slippery floor when thou has goofed, for this is likely thine own mistake.
>
> 7. Thou shalt clean thyself diligently before the dance, thereby creating a pleasant aroma for thy partner. Men should wear long sleeved shirts and women should wear dresses.
>
> 8. Thou shalt remain silent while thy caller gives advice and instruction.
>
> 9. Thou shalt not partake of strong drink before or during the dance, lest thy mind become befuddled and confused.
>
> 10. Thou shalt strive diligently to observe these commandments, and thy reward shall be great; for ye shall have many friends and shall be called SQUARE DANCER!
>
> (1986 National Square Dance Directory, p. 20)

In the mid-1950s, approximately 200 callers assisted The American Square Dance Society in creating descriptions, styling and timing notes for the basic movements then in use. There were too many calls to be learned in one night, so clubs began offering classes. Classes ran for several weeks, and graduates could then dance to any caller. The number of calls has tripled in the last 30 years, leading to the creation of various levels, or programs, of dancing.

Callerlab, the International Association of Square Dance Callers, developed the current system in the mid-1970s. Calls were placed in a hierarchy according to difficulty and divided into programs. The Basic program consists of the first 48 calls. Mainstream covers calls 1-68, and the Plus program adds an additional 27 calls. Advanced and Challenge programs add even more calls.

Voluntarism

Cull and Hardy (1974) list five main types of voluntarism: service-oriented, issue-oriented, consummatory, occupational/economic self-interest, and philanthropic/funding. Service-oriented volunteers help others in such organizations as the Red Cross and hospitals. Issue- or cause-oriented volunteers direct their efforts at a public issue such as consumerism or the environment. Consummatory or self-expressive volunteers pursue activities for enjoyment and for personal self-expression. Members of little theatre groups, bowling

leagues, and square dance clubs fall into this category. Occupational/economic self-interest groups such as trade unions and professional associations are designed to further the occupational interests of the participants, while philanthropic/funding volunteers raise funds for nonprofit organizations.

Much less research has been done on consummatory volunteers than on the other types of volunteers (Smith, Macaulay, et al., 1980). Still, many of the characteristics of the other types of volunteer associations appear to apply to consummatory associations. The goals of each volunteer association are to satisfy the members' demands for services (including sociability), to be publicly recognized as a legitimate organization, and to influence public policies affecting the association (Knoke & Prensky, 1984).

Schindler-Rainman & Lippitt (1975) describe three types of volunteers with very different needs. Autonomy-oriented volunteers want the freedom to take risks and find new excitement in their volunteer work, while interdependence-oriented volunteers value peer relationships and mutual support. Dependence- or support-oriented volunteers want a clearly defined job to do, with training and on-the-job supervision and help. Volunteers should be assigned to tasks that meet their individual needs (O'Connell, 1976).

In a study comparing volunteers to paid employees in similar organizations, Pearce (1982) found volunteers to be more variable in their performance than paid employees; they are either enthusiastic and do even more than what is expected of them, or they can not be relied upon to show up or perform at a minimum level. What volunteers do have in common with paid employees are the needs of all people in groups:

1. To have a sense of belonging
2. To share in planning group goals
3. To feel goals are within reach
4. To share in making the rules of the group
5. To know in clear detail what is expected of them
6. To have responsibilities that challenge them, within range of their abilities, and contribute toward reaching their own goals
7. To see that progress is being made toward the goals they have set
8. To be kept informed
9. To have confidence in their leaders--based on assurance of consistent fair treatment, recognition when it is due, and appreciation for steady, consistent, contributing membership.

(Kimball, 1980, p. 39)

Motivation

According to March and Simon (1958, p. 84), "Each participant will continue his participation in the organization only so long as the inducements offered to him

are as great or greater (measured in terms of his values and in terms of alternatives open to him) than the contributions he is asked to make." Organizations offer incentives or threaten sanctions in return for participation; since most voluntary associations do not have the power to make coercive sanctions work, only positive incentives are effective (Knoke & Wood, 1981). Knoke and Prensky (1984) and Clark and Wilson (1961) each list three basic types of positive incentives. Utilitarian or material incentives are tangible rewards with monetary value such as wages. Normative or purposive incentives are based on the values held by the participants--fulfilling a civic obligation or a belief in the organization's goals. Affective or solidary incentives are intangible social benefits from associating with other members. Voluntary associations rely almost totally on normative and affective incentives.

The word motivation comes from the Latin "movere"--to move toward satisfying a need. It is impossible to motivate another person; they may be stimulated to action, but motivation must come from within (Kimball, 1980). Attempting to motivate others is like attempting to push a string. The only way to get volunteers to do anything is to give them what they want, or as David Lloyd George once put it, "Bait the hook to suit the fish." Some potential motivating factors for volunteers are self-advancement and

growth, challenging work, recognition, responsibility, variety, independence, helping others, socialization, and a sense of duty (Blumberg & Arsenian, 1960; Kimball, 1980; Rauner, 1980; Tedrick, Davis & Coutant, 1984).

Leadership

Hersey and Blanchard (1982, p. 83) define leadership as "the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation." Burns (1978) adds that the goals should represent the values and needs of both the leaders and the followers.

The Ohio State Leadership Studies delineated two categories of leadership behavior: Initiating Structure, which is behavior focused on ensuring the job gets done, and Consideration, which is behavior indicative of friendship and respect between the manager and the subordinate. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) renamed these categories task behavior and relationship behavior, respectively, and combined them in varying degrees to form four leadership styles. In the "telling" style, high in task behavior and low in relationship behavior, the manager tells the subordinate what needs to be done along with how and when to do it. In the "selling" style (high task, high relationship), the manager structures the task and gives support to those working on it. The "participating" manager (low task, high relationship) gives encouragement

while allowing subordinates to decide how and when to do the task, and the "delegating manager" (low task, low relationship) assigns responsibilities and then leaves the subordinates alone. Osborne (1984) calls these same four leadership styles structuring, coaching, encouraging, and delegating, respectively. According to Hersey and Blanchard, there is no one best leadership style; the leadership style to be used in a given situation is a function of the maturity level of those being led. Subordinates are categorized into four maturity levels based on their motivation to do a task and their skill at the task. Subordinates at a low maturity level (low motivation, little experience) require the structure and direction of the "telling" style, while the "delegating" style is more appropriate for highly skilled subordinates who are highly motivated.

Blake and Mouton (1975) take a different approach, stating that there is indeed one best leadership style. Their Managerial Grid takes the concepts of task behavior and relationship behavior, renames them "concern for production" and "concern for people," and rates each on a scale from 1 (low) to 9 (high). The horizontal axis represents concern for production, while the vertical axis represents concern for people. The point on the Grid where the two concerns intersect is the individual's leadership style. A 1,1 or "impoverished" leader takes a "see no

evil, hear no evil, speak no evil" approach. The 1,9 "country club" leader is more concerned with being liked by his subordinates than with getting the job done. The 9,1 "task" leader is only concerned with getting the job done exactly the way he wants it done, while the 5,5 "middle-of-the-road" leader tries to balance production and people without giving maximum effort in either direction. The best leadership style, Blake and Mouton insist, is the 9,9 "team" style. The 9,9 leader enlists the full participation of subordinates in decision making and helps them set high goals for achievement.

The controversy between situational leadership theorists and those who believe in one best style appears to hinge on the way the task and relationship variables are combined. Blake and Mouton (1982) posit that the situational leadership theorists combine the variables on an additive basis; for example, "selling" would involve high task behavior and high relationship behavior, for a 9+9 style. A 9+9 leader would agree with the statements "Always rule with an iron hand," and "Often do favors for persons under you," revealing a paternalistic orientation. A "9" amount of relationship behavior is the same type of behavior regardless of whether it is paired with "1" level task behavior or "9" level because the two variables are independent. The Managerial Grid, however, combines the variables on an interactive basis. The concern for people

shown by a 1,9 leader is very different from that shown by a 9,9 leader, even though the magnitude of the concern is the same. The two variables are interdependent and can not be separated. To test their theory, Blake and Mouton used Hersey and Blanchard's LEAD-Self test. This instrument describes 12 managerial situations and for each situation gives four alternative ways for the manager to behave. The respondent is supposed to select the "correct" behavior according to the maturity level of the subordinates in that situation. None of the alternatives displayed a 9,9 orientation, so Blake and Mouton added a 9,9 alternative to each of the 12 situations. They administered the test to 100 experienced managerial personnel from numerous companies, 36 MD and PhD mental health professionals, and 38 academic administrators. The participants were not briefed on the controversy. For each situation, the 9,9 alternative was the overwhelming choice over the prescribed situational alternative, statistically significant beyond the .001 level of confidence. Blake and Mouton conclude from this that 9,9 is the one best leadership style and list ten principles of leadership which typify the 9,9 position:

1. Fulfillment through participation is the motivation that gives character to human activity and supports productivity.

2. Open communication is essential for the exercise of self and shared responsibility.

3. Accepting others as capable of reaching standards of excellence promotes trust and respect.

4. Shared participation in problem solving and decision making stimulates active involvement and commitment, productivity, and creative thinking.

5. Conflicts are solved by direct confrontation of their causes, with understanding and agreement as the basis of cooperative effort.

6. Mutual agreement is the strongest basis for supervision.

7. Effective interaction between boss and subordinate enhances synergy.

8. Management is by objectives.

9. Organization members who cooperate are interdependent in giving mutual support.

10. Learning from experience is through critique and feedback. (Blake & Mouton, 1982, p. 285)

Leadership style is not the only indicator of a good leader. Bennis (1984) studied 90 effective leaders with proven track records to see what they had in common. The leaders displayed widely divergent interests and leadership styles, but all of them exhibited four competencies: management of attention, management of meaning, management of trust, and management of self. The leaders managed attention through a compelling vision, a commitment and dedication which attracted people to them. Their intentions were always evident. They communicated the vision by making ideas tangible and real to others. The leaders managed trust by being reliable and constant; their subordinates always knew where they stood. Management of

self was achieved by knowing their skills and deploying them effectively. They learned from their mistakes and did not consider mistakes to be failures. The collective effect of this outstanding leadership was empowerment. People felt significant--like they made a difference to the success of the organization. Learning and competence mattered, and work was exciting. Employees were part of a community, and the leaders pulled rather than pushed them to a goal. Above all, the leaders articulated and embodied ideals toward which the organizations strove.

Leadership of Volunteers

Volunteer associations are almost always democracies. As such, they have certain functional requirements (Merton, 1966). They must provide for ways to determine the will of the majority and allow for dissent. Organizationally relevant information must be available to the members, and policy-making representatives must be accountable to the membership. Elections should be held on a regular basis, and nominations to high office must be able to be made from below. To be effective, an organization must be able to adapt to changes in its environment and develop new organizational goals as needed.

Many members of volunteer associations are not active participants (Pugliese, 1986). Merton (1966) describes four types of volunteers, based on their degree of commitment to the association and their degree of

participation in its affairs. Involved and active volunteers generally make up less than 20% of the membership and usually occupy top leadership roles. Involved and inactive volunteers are a strategic, unused resource; they are willing to work, and perhaps need only to be asked. Uninvolved and active volunteers are reluctant members pressed into service who would rather not be bothered. Uninvolved and inactive volunteers make up the majority of most associations; they are merely passive recipients of functions performed by the association.

A comparatively small number of members do the work of the association and are thrust into positions of continuing leadership. Conrad and Glenn (1983, p. xv) have one view on this phenomenon: "Rule by oligarchy has controlled many boards. The few complain that the many never do any work, when, in fact, the few like it that way. If the many did become involved, the few would lose control." Merton, however, believes it is not the iron rule of oligarchy but merely leadership by default. In a comparison of voluntary and employee organizations, Pearce (1980) found that although volunteer leadership authority can be obtained merely by pursuing an office, many volunteers actively avoid leadership roles. On the other hand, employees actively seek authority in the form of a promotion but it is difficult to obtain. This is because leadership positions in the two types of organizations bring different

rewards. When an employee is promoted, he receives a higher salary, more autonomy, less tedious work, status, and possibly clerical assistance. When a volunteer assumes an office, he takes on more tedious tasks, more meetings, more time consumed, but he gets no more autonomy and no reward or coercive power. The volunteers have little to gain and much to lose by assuming active leadership roles; it is in the member's self-interest to maintain a rank-and-file role. For volunteer leaders the benefits, such as greater influence on the organization's direction and instrumental personal contacts, must outweigh the substantial costs.

Volunteer associations must find ways to increase the attractiveness of leadership positions. Benefits should not be increased, because leaders may then not want to relinquish their positions. Instead, the added "costs" of leadership positions must be reduced. Some people turn down positions not because they are uninterested, but because the assignments are so vague that saying yes could lead into a bottomless pit of responsibility (O'Connell, 1976). The job should be broken down into small, specific assignments, with accurate and explicit job descriptions. Although volunteer leaders tend to be doers rather than delegators, they should delegate some tasks in order to avoid burnout (Wilson, 1984). Maximum effort should be made to encourage more members to assume leadership

positions in order to ensure a continuing flow of new ideas.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The Questionnaire

A three page questionnaire was mailed to the president of each of the 25 clubs in the San Diego Square Dance Association, as well as to the president of the Association. Copies of the cover letter and the questionnaire can be found in Appendix A and Appendix B, respectively.

The questionnaire started with some demographic items, including age, sex, education level, and prior supervisory experience. The presidents were asked how long they had danced, how frequently they dance now, and what other square dance club offices they had held. In order to find out why these individuals volunteered to become club presidents, they were given thirteen possible reasons and asked to rate the importance of each one on a scale from one to five. To determine leadership style, the presidents rated twelve leadership behaviors according to how frequently they felt a good leader would use each behavior. There were three behaviors typical of each of Hersey and Blanchard's four Situational Leadership styles. Finally, open-ended questions were used to solicit the best and worst aspects of being a club president, and any perceived need for training before assuming the position.

Compilation of the Data

Responses were totaled for each question, and the average number of previous positions held was computed. The score for each leadership style was computed by adding the ratings for the three behaviors typical of that style. The style with the highest number of points was considered to be that individual's predominant leadership style. Leadership style scores were then averaged for the entire group to find the group's most preferred leadership style.

CHAPTER IV

THE FINDINGS

Demographic Data

Fifteen of the questionnaires were returned, for a return rate of 58%. There were twelve men and three women; their ages and education levels are listed in Tables I and II below, respectively. All of the men and none of the women have had supervisory experience at work.

TABLE I

AGE

Age	Number
20-29	1
30-39	1
40-49	2
50-59	5
60-69	5
70+	1

TABLE II

HIGHEST EDUCATION LEVEL ATTAINED

Education Level	Number
High school	5
Some college	5
College degree	2
Some graduate work	0
Graduate degree	2
No response	1

Most of the presidents have quite a lot of dancing experience, with one-third of them dancing for 21 years or more. They dance frequently; six of them dance at least nine times each month. Their responses regarding years of dancing experience and the number of nights they dance each month are listed in Tables III and IV, respectively.

TABLE III

YEARS OF DANCING EXPERIENCE

Years	Number
1-2	0
3-5	3
6-8	2
9-11	2
12-14	2
15-17	0
18-20	1
21+	5

TABLE IV

NUMBER OF DANCES EACH MONTH

Dances	Number
1-2	3
3-4	1
5-6	3
7-8	2
9-10	3
11-12	1
13-14	0
15+	2

The presidents have held an average of six different club offices. Two, however, have held no office other than president. The most popular position was Association representative, listed by nine of the presidents; vice president and treasurer followed closely behind, each listed by eight presidents. A breakdown of the positions can be found in Table V.

TABLE V

OTHER CLUB OFFICES OR POSITIONS HELD

Position	Number
Association representative	9
Vice president	8
Treasurer	8
Ambassador	7
Refreshments	7
Publicity	6
Secretary	5
Sheriff	5
Membership	4
Travel	4
Activities	3
Newsletter	3
Parliamentarian	2
Wagonmaster	1
Class representative	1
Association vice president	1
Association president	1

Feelings about Being the President

Many different factors motivated these individuals to volunteer to be club president. All of the thirteen possible reasons for volunteering received an average score

of two, three or four on a scale of one to five. No reason was so important that it averaged a score of five; conversely, no reason was rated so universally low that it averaged a score of one. This implies that a factor that is a strong motivator for one individual may be totally irrelevant to another individual. The reasons for volunteering and their ratings are listed in Table VI.

TABLE VI

REASONS FOR VOLUNTEERING

Reason for Volunteering	Average Score	Total Score
Dancers should support their club.	4	67
I enjoy a challenge.	4	63
I think everyone should hold a club position at least once.	4	60
It's a good way to meet people and make new friends.	4	58
The club has been good to me; serving the club is a privilege.	4	56
I wanted to have a say in running the club.	3	48
I like to plan, organize, and direct activities as a leader.	3	47
No one else wanted the job.	3	46
I thought it would be fun.	3	45
I wanted the leadership experience.	3	38
I like to feel needed.	3	38
I had some free time.	2	36
My friends also hold club positions.	2	27

The highest rated reason, with 67 points out of a total possible of 75, was "dancers should support their club." The presidents are well aware that some clubs have folded due to lack of participation and feel an obligation

to do what they can to keep their clubs functioning. "I enjoy a challenge" received the second highest rating, indicating that the presidents were aware at the beginning that the position often requires the wisdom of Solomon and the patience of Job. Although meeting people and making new friends rated fairly high on the scale, being with current friends who hold club positions was the lowest rated choice. Also low rated was "I had some free time." Apparently most people with free time are able to find less aggravating ways of spending it.

The majority of the presidents felt training for the position was unnecessary. Only five of them listed topics for training, and no topics were repeated. One president wanted training on Robert's Rules of Order, and another wanted a crash course in caller contracts. A third wanted to learn how to ask neighborhood merchants to donate door prizes, how to organize an anniversary dance, and how to get media publicity for the club. The other two presidents wanted training in more generic areas: dealing with personalities, organizing, communicating, keeping on top of things, enjoying, being innovative, and radiating a sense of humor.

There were several recurring themes in the answers to the question "What do you like the most about being the president?" Interacting with people was considered an important benefit of the job--helping them have fun, and

seeing them work together to make the organization grow. Leadership and authority were also important, especially being able to make club announcements and being shown respect when they visit other clubs. The presidents also liked the challenge of handling adversity, trying new ideas, and leading people through tough decisions, as well as the feeling of accomplishment achieved through contributing to the success of the club.

The one overwhelming headache the presidents mentioned was dancers who complain about everything without offering solutions or volunteering to serve in a club office. As one president put it, "No people want to be in charge. No people want to work or plan club functions. You have two types of dancers--a few workers and the rest just want to dance and complain." Almost as frustrating, some people accept an office and then fail to do the work. Politics and cliques were problems, as were the lack of attendance by dancers at club functions and the lack of support given to the presidents on important issues. Having to confront dancers on their inappropriate behavior caused anxiety for some presidents.

Leadership Styles

The responses in the leadership behaviors section of the questionnaire indicated no clear-cut favorite leadership style. The leadership behavior scores and leadership style scores can be found in Tables VII and

VIII, respectively.

TABLE VII

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS

Leadership Behavior	Average Score	Total Score
Telling		
Decide and tell subordinates what to do.	2.2	33
Decide and tell subordinates how to do each task.	1.8	27
Decide solutions to disagreements alone.	2.1	32
Selling		
Give frequent, informal feedback on performance.	3.9	58
Allow subordinates to participate in planning and making decisions.	4.5	68
Negotiate disagreements by solving problems mutually.	4.3	65
Participating		
Encourage independence.	4.4	66
Allow subordinates to make decisions and solve problems associated with their tasks.	4.3	65
Consult with subordinates on their assignments mainly to provide support and encouragement.	4.5	68
Delegating		
Delegate tasks, and allow subordinates to work and make decisions on their own.	4.5	68
Provide minimal guidance.	3.7	55
Allow subordinates to set their own pace and to determine ways to accomplish the tasks.	3.7	56

Three leadership styles, "selling," "participating," and "delegating," all had high scores, with "participating" the highest by a slight margin. The least favorite leadership style, however, was obvious--"telling."

Apparently the presidents have learned that if you order volunteers around, you will soon lose them. This meshes with Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership theory, because volunteers are by definition not at the lowest maturity level (unable and unwilling to do the task). Therefore, "telling" should not have to be used by supervisors of volunteers. The other three leadership styles are used on an almost equal basis, depending upon the maturity level of the volunteer. Some volunteers need a lot of hand-holding and encouragement, while others can function independently.

TABLE VIII

LEADERSHIP STYLE

Leadership Style	Average Score	Total Score
Telling	6.1	92
Selling	12.7	191
Participating	13.3	199
Delegating	11.9	179

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Two comments seem to sum up the attitudes of the presidents. The president with the highest "telling" score (11) stated, "As president, I believe that I must consistently come up with ideas to please the members and always have some type of interesting and fun-filled event planned to give them something to look forward to and hopefully make them want to attend. I guess what I'm trying to say is, as president, it is my job to make all of the club members attend every dance night in any way that I can. Sometimes I feel very down when attendance is poor and the club members seem to lack the enthusiasm I feel and try to project. I don't regret the decision I made when I accepted the position of president, but I wish there was a way to make club members feel more loyal and supportive." This president has, in effect, assumed all of the responsibility for the successful functioning of the club. Contrast his attitude with that of the second president, who scored extremely low on "telling": "I think a good club is run by a group of people, rather than by one person alone. I always try to get everyone involved, especially at an anniversary dance or party night. Clubs that are still square dancing today have good boards running them."

Clubs function best as group efforts, not as one-

person dictatorships. In fact, spreading the workload around would greatly decrease the amount of burnout and might encourage other people to volunteer. People are more likely to volunteer for one limited task than for an all-encompassing job like president in which the work never seems to end. Giving a potential volunteer a detailed list of job duties allows the individual to make an informed decision about whether to volunteer. Although some people may be scared off, others may find the job requirements easier than they had imagined and be willing to volunteer. People volunteer for many different reasons; a good recruiter will find out what motivates a certain potential volunteer and build those aspects into the job.

A great deal of research still needs to be done in the area of volunteers leading volunteers. One possibility would be to survey square dance club members who have never held an office to find out their reasons for not volunteering. Square dancing volunteers and nonvolunteers could be compared to volunteers and nonvolunteers in other types of clubs. A questionnaire based on the Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid model might turn up different insights into leadership style than one based on Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership model.

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APPENDICES

18 November 1986

Dear Club President:

I am a member of the Single Squares and the Raylin Cloggers. I am also a graduate student at San Diego State University, and my master's thesis is on leadership in volunteer organizations. As you well know, being a square dance club president takes a great deal of time and leadership skill. Most people are not willing to undertake so much responsibility. In my thesis, I am exploring what motivates a person to volunteer for such a demanding position.

I would appreciate it if you would fill out the enclosed questionnaire and return it to me before Thanksgiving. It will only take fifteen minutes, and I have enclosed a stamped, self-addressed return envelope for your convenience. Feel free to call me at 276-7209 if you have any questions.

Thank you very much for your assistance!

Sincerely,

Patti Sharpley

Appendix A

CLUB PRESIDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Please circle your response to each question.

1. Sex - M F

2. Age - 20-29 30-39 40-49 50-59 60-69 70+

3. Highest education level attained -

   High school
   Some college
   College degree
   Some graduate work
   Graduate degree

4. Have you ever had supervisory experience at work? Yes No

5. How many years have you square danced?

   1-3 3-5 6-8 9-11 12-14 15-17 18-20 21+

6. How many nights do you dance each month?

   1-2 3-4 5-6 7-8 9-10 11-12 13-14 15+

7. Please circle all of the square dance club offices or positions you have held.

president	vice president	secretary
treasurer	membership	Association rep
publicity	refreshments	activities
ambassador	newsletter	parliamentarian
wagonmaster	travel	sheriff

other (please list)_____

_____

8. What do you like the most about being the president? Please explain.

9. What do you dislike the most about being the president? Please explain.

Appendix B

10. Why did you volunteer to be club president? For each reason below, please indicate how important it was to your decision by circling the appropriate number on a scale from 1 (not important) to 5 (very important).

	not important				very important
a. Dancers should support their club.	1	2	3	4	5
b. I wanted to have a say in running the club.	1	2	3	4	5
c. My friends also hold club positions.	1	2	3	4	5
d. No one else wanted the job.	1	2	3	4	5
e. I had some free time.	1	2	3	4	5
f. I thought it would be fun.	1	2	3	4	5
g. I wanted the leadership experience.	1	2	3	4	5
h. It's a good way to meet people and make new friends.	1	2	3	4	5
i. I like to feel needed.	1	2	3	4	5
j. The club has been good to me; serving the club is a privilege.	1	2	3	4	5
k. I like to plan, organize, and direct activities as a leader.	1	2	3	4	5
l. I think everyone should hold a club position at least once.	1	2	3	4	5
m. I enjoy a challenge.	1	2	3	4	5
n. Other (please explain)					
_____	1	2	3	4	5
_____	1	2	3	4	5

11. If you could have received some training prior to becoming president, what topics would have been most helpful? Please explain.

12. The following questions have to do with your views on leadership. For each statement, indicate how frequently you think a good leader should use this behavior by circling the appropriate number on a scale from 1 (rarely) to 5 (very often).

"When working with subordinates, a good leader should. . ."

	rarely				very often
a. Decide and tell subordinates what to do.	1	2	3	4	5
b. Give frequent, informal feedback on performance.	1	2	3	4	5
c. Encourage independence.	1	2	3	4	5
d. Delegate tasks, and allow subordinates to work and make decisions on their own.	1	2	3	4	5
e. Decide and tell subordinates how to do each task.	1	2	3	4	5
f. Allow subordinates to participate in planning and making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
g. Allow subordinates to make decisions and solve problems associated with their tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
h. Provide minimal guidance.	1	2	3	4	5
i. Decide solutions to disagreements alone.	1	2	3	4	5
j. Negotiate disagreements by solving problems mutually.	1	2	3	4	5
k. Consult with subordinates on their assignments mainly to provide support and encouragement.	1	2	3	4	5
l. Allow subordinates to set their own pace and to determine ways to accomplish the tasks.	1	2	3	4	5

13. Any additional comments regarding your experience as president or leadership in general? Please feel free to continue on the back of this page, if necessary.

END

8-87

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